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Feeding and damage-induced volatile cues make beetles disperse and produce a more even distribution of damage for sagebrush.

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### Authors

Karban, Richard  
Yang, Louie H

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1                   Feeding and damage-induced volatile cues  
2                   make beetles disperse  
3       and produce a more even distribution of damage for sagebrush

4

5                   Richard Karban and Louie H. Yang  
6       Department of Entomology and Nematology  
7                   University of California  
8                   Davis, CA 95616 USA  
9                   rkarban@ucdavis.edu

10 ABSTRACT

11 1. Induced plant responses to herbivory are common and we have  
12 learned a lot about the mechanisms of induced resistance and their  
13 effects on herbivore performance. We know less about their effects on  
14 herbivore behavior and especially on spatial patterns of damage.

15 2. Theoretical models predict that induced responses can cause  
16 patterns of damage to become aggregated, random, or even. A recent  
17 model predicted that informed herbivore movement coupled with  
18 communication between plants would make damage more even within  
19 individual plants. We tested these predictions in the field using a  
20 specialist beetle (*Trirhabda pilosa*) that feeds on sagebrush (*Artemisia*  
21 *tridentata*). Both the beetle and the plant are well-documented to  
22 respond to damage-induced volatile cues.

23 3. Beetle larvae were more likely to move from damaged leaves and  
24 leaves that had been exposed to volatiles from nearby damaged  
25 leaves compared to undamaged control leaves. Previous lab results  
26 indicated that beetles were more likely to choose undamaged leaves  
27 compared to damaged leaves or those exposed to volatile cues of  
28 damage.

29 4. A comparison of damage patterns early in the season and after  
30 completion of beetle feeding revealed that variance in damage among  
31 branches decreased as the season progressed; i.e., damage became  
32 more evenly distributed among the branches within a plant. Larvae

33 damaged many leaves on a plant but removed relatively little tissue  
34 from each leaf.

35 5. Herbivore movement and the spatial patterns of damage that it  
36 creates can be important in determining effects on plant fitness and  
37 other population processes. Dispersion of damage deserves more  
38 consideration in plant-herbivore studies.

39 Key-words: induced resistance, spatial distribution, over-dispersed,  
40 herbivore behavior, movement, plant communication, dispersion,  
41 *Trirhabda*

## 42 1 INTRODUCTION

43 Anyone who has collected tree leaves at the end of the growing  
44 season knows that finding a leaf with no damage is rare. This pattern  
45 is counter-intuitive since many chewing insects (and other animals) are  
46 patchily aggregated in nature. This paper will consider one ecological  
47 process that could produce the scarcity of completely undamaged  
48 leaves.

49 Scientists have been aware of induced plant responses to  
50 herbivory for approximately 50 years (Green and Ryan 1972). When  
51 plants are damaged by feeding herbivores, they change in many ways  
52 and some of these changes make them less preferred and/or less  
53 suitable for herbivores. Induced responses propagate over various  
54 temporal and spatial scales, although many have been observed to be  
55 localized to those tissues that surround the site of damage (Karban and  
56 Baldwin 1997). Several of the early ecologists who described induced  
57 responses characterized these temporal and spatial changes and their  
58 effects on herbivores. For example, experimentally damaged squash  
59 leaves produced chemicals that spread from the site of wounding and  
60 rapidly changed the attractiveness and palatability of those damaged  
61 leaves for beetle larvae (Carroll and Hoffman 1980). Beetles were  
62 presumed to have moved away from sites that had been previously  
63 attacked since larvae and adults were always found at least 2 m from  
64 past feeding scars and beetles were never observed to occupy the

65 same leaf as a conspecific. Edwards and Wratten (1983) examined  
66 herbivore damage to leaves of clover and eight forest tree species at  
67 the end of the growing season. Although no statistical analyses were  
68 performed, they proposed that the pattern of damage was highly  
69 dispersed, i.e., all leaves had some relatively low level of feeding  
70 damage and few leaves had high levels. These authors speculated  
71 that plant responses and subsequent insect behavior could limit the  
72 total amount of tissue damage and that damage that was spread  
73 evenly among branches within an individual would be less detrimental  
74 to the plant than clumped damage.

75         In the decades since researchers first documented induced  
76 responses there has been considerable effort to elucidate the  
77 mechanisms that were responsible for plant perception and plant  
78 reactions to herbivores. Far less emphasis has been placed on  
79 understanding the spatial extent of induction and its consequences.  
80 Edwards and Wratten (1983) observed that insects tended to move  
81 away from damaged leaves and that this pattern of movement could  
82 produce an even pattern of damage at the scale of individual plants.  
83 Many herbivorous insects have been found to move away from  
84 previously damaged tissues (e.g., Edwards and Wratten 1983,  
85 Bergelson, Fowler, & Hartley 1986, Harrison and Karban 1986, Roslin et  
86 al. 2008, Kallenbach, Bonaventure, Gilardoni, Wissgott, & Baldwin  
87 2012, Perkins et al. 2013, Morrell and Kessler 2017). Although this

pattern is commonly found, exceptions have also been noted even for insect species that feed on the same plants reported in the studies above (e.g., Carroll and Hoffman 1980, Bergelson and Lawton 1988).

Herbivores that avoid plant tissues that have been damaged previously are considered to exhibit 'informed herbivore movement' (sensu Rubin, Ellner, Kessler, & Morrell 2015). There has been little consensus concerning whether informed herbivore movement will produce even damage to host plants. For example, models of herbivore movement away from damaged-induced plant tissue often predict that herbivores will aggregate at tissues of higher quality (Underwood, Anderson, & Inouye 2005, Anderson, Inouye, & Underwood 2015). This was the pattern observed for beetles on damaged soybean foliage (Underwood, Anderson, & Inouye 2005). A more complex model that included informed herbivore movement as well as volatile communication between neighboring plants was parameterized with empirical data from *Trirhabda virgata* beetles feeding on goldenrod; this model generated distributions that ranged from even to aggregated (Rubin, Ellner, Kessler, & Morrell 2015). These authors found that induced plant resistance tended to lead to patterns of aggregated damage but the addition of both informed herbivore movement and communication between plants spread the damage more evenly.

110           Although there is considerable empirical evidence that many  
111 herbivores preferentially move away from damage (informed  
112 movement), the effects of this movement on the distribution of  
113 damage is poorly understood. It is not known how movement affects  
114 the distribution of damage for plant species that respond to cues  
115 emitted by damaged neighbors although many plants have been found  
116 to exhibit these responses (Karban, Yang, & Edwards 2014).  
117 Sagebrush (*Artemisia tridentata*) induces resistance when directly  
118 attacked by herbivores or when exposed to damage-associated VOCs  
119 produced by experimentally wounded tissue of neighbors (Karban,  
120 Shiojiri, Huntzinger, & McCall 2006). In this case, induced resistance  
121 was assayed by measuring reductions in the total herbivore damage  
122 accumulated over the growing season. Behavioral assays have also  
123 been conducted in petri dishes in the lab involving locally abundant  
124 chrysomelid beetle larvae (*Trirhabda pilosa*) presented with induced or  
125 uninduced sagebrush leaves (Grof-Tisza, Karban, Pan, & Blande 2020).  
126 These bioassays indicated that beetles consistently chose undamaged  
127 control leaves in preference to leaves that had been either damaged or  
128 exposed to volatiles from damaged leaves. In this current study we  
129 asked whether beetle larvae in the field were more likely to move to  
130 another leaf if the leaf they were on was experimentally clipped or  
131 exposed to volatiles from a nearby damaged leaf compared to  
132 controls. We then asked whether this movement reduced the variation



in damage among branches within sagebrush plants. We flagged all of the branches on study plants and recorded whether the distribution of damage changed from the beginning to the end of the time when these univoltine beetles fed on sagebrush.

## 2 Methods

### 2.1 Study System

Sagebrush is the most abundant and the defining plant of the Great Basin biome of western North America (Young, Evans, & Major 1988). This study was conducted at the UC Valentine Eastern Sierra Reserve (N 37.631 W -118.996) at an elevation of 2550 m, near Mammoth Lakes, CA. Several subspecies of sagebrush co-occur at this study site although only the subspecies *vaseyana* was considered in this study. As a result of its abundance and widespread distribution, sagebrush serves as the host for a large list of insect and vertebrate herbivores (Wiens et al. 1991, Sanford and Huntley 2010).

Bushes at the study site were attacked by a specialist chrysomelid beetle (*Trirhabda pilosa*) during the summers of 2017 – 2019. This outbreak may have occurred in previous summers but escaped our notice. Populations of this beetle are very patchy such that some bushes had 100% of their leaves attacked while those less than 1 km away supported no larvae. Eggs overwinter in the soil or under bark and larvae begin feeding on foliage at the elevation of this study in late June or early July (Pringle 1960). Feeding by larvae of *T.*

156 *pilosa* is recognizable as rasping damage that leaves a hole or  
157 skeletonized pattern with uneven margins in the interior of leaves.  
158 This unusual characteristic of damage can be readily differentiated  
159 from that caused by the other herbivores of sagebrush in eastern  
160 California. Larvae have not been observed feeding on any other host  
161 species (Pringle 1960, Karban pers. obs.) Beetles pupate in the soil  
162 beneath bushes by mid July. Adults feed on inflorescences and foliage  
163 of sagebrush and mate in late July and August.

#### 164 *Movement*

165 We tested whether larvae were more likely to move if the leaf on  
166 which they were located was experimentally clipped. We recorded  
167 whether 100 individual beetle larvae remained for one hour on the  
168 leaves where they were first observed. The leaf or nearby stem was  
169 marked with a small piece of colored lab tape. For half of the beetle  
170 larvae, the leaf that they were observed on was experimentally clipped  
171 with dissecting scissors at the start of the hour-long observation period  
172 in the field. Sagebrush leaves have three lobes and one of these lobes  
173 was clipped during the treatment. Two other nearby leaves (within 2  
174 cm) also had one of their lobes clipped for plants assigned to this  
175 treatment. The other beetles served as controls and the leaf they were  
176 on plus two others nearby were touched, but not clipped, by the  
177 scissors. After one hour, we observed the location of each larva –  
178 whether it stayed on the original leaf or moved.

179           Second, we returned to each marked location after 24 hours and  
180 recorded whether we could locate each of the beetle larvae on the  
181 original branch. We selected plants that had low densities of beetles  
182 for this experiment. It is possible that some of the beetles that we  
183 located after 24 hours were not the original ones that we had marked  
184 the previous day. Because there were few beetles (2-10) on these  
185 bushes, this is unlikely and there is no reason to imagine that  
186 treatment should have affected the frequency of this outcome. We  
187 assume that beetle larvae rarely moved between bushes because we  
188 observed similar numbers of beetles on successive days (pers. obs).

189           Third, we tested whether beetle larvae were more likely to move  
190 if neighboring leaves were clipped. We marked the location of 100  
191 larvae with lab tape. For half of the larvae, we clipped the tip of three  
192 leaves that were physically close to each larva (within 2 cm) but not  
193 the leaf that the larva was on. Some of the clipped leaves were not on  
194 the same stem or sharing vascular connections with the leaf that the  
195 larva was on. After 24 hours we recorded whether each larva had  
196 moved from its original location.

197           Fourth, we attempted to repeat the experiments by introducing  
198 the beetles to leaves receiving different treatments. We tested  
199 whether 60 larvae would be more likely to move after 24 hours if they  
200 were placed on experimentally clipped leaves compared to being  
201 placed on unclipped control leaves in the field.

For each of the movement experiments above, we used Fisher's exact test to compare whether larvae were more likely to move from treated leaves compared to untreated controls. Since we had the *a priori* expectation that beetles would be more likely to move from damaged leaves or leaves receiving cues from damaged leaves, these tests were one-tailed.

### *Dispersion of damage*

We evaluated the pattern of dispersion of beetle damage on bushes early in the feeding season (July 10) and later after larval feeding had finished (August 24). We mapped all of the branches (mean = 11.7 branches) on 10 bushes and recorded the number of leaves with damage caused by *T. pilosa* and the total number of leaves on each branch both early (July) and late (August). For each branch we calculated the mean number of leaves with beetle damage; a branch was the sampling unit. Since branches had different total numbers of leaves, we standardized these measures by calculating the proportion of damaged leaves per branch. We assessed whether the mean proportion of damaged leaves increased later in the season using a Wilcoxon signed-ranks test with repeated measures of damage (Sokal and Rohlf 1969). Since we had a clear *a priori* expectation, we used a one-tailed test. We chose this nonparametric approach because our damage data could not meet assumptions required for parametric analyses even with transformation (see Supporting Information).

225           We calculated the among-branch variance in proportional  
226 damage for each bush to assess if damage variability decreased  
227 between July and August. We tested the hypothesis that the variation  
228 among branches decreased as the season progressed using a Wilcoxon  
229 signed-ranks test with repeated measures of damage (Sokal and Rohlf  
230 1969). Since we had a clear *a priori* expectation, we used a one-tailed  
231 test. We chose a nonparametric approach because our variance data  
232 could not meet assumptions required for parametric analyses, even  
233 with transformation (see Supporting Information).

234           Estimating the proportion of leaves that received chewing  
235 damage by *T. pilosa* was relatively quick and most importantly, did not  
236 require destructive sampling. However, many ecologists are  
237 accustomed to estimating damage by chewing herbivores as the  
238 percentage of leaf area that is removed. In order to compare these  
239 two methods, we removed one branch from 20 sagebrush plants that  
240 had varying levels of beetle damage. These branches were collected  
241 from another population of *A. tridentata vaseyana* near Tahoe  
242 meadows, Mt. Rose, Washoe County, Nevada (N 39.298 W -118.923).  
243 For each branch we estimated the number of leaves that had beetle  
244 damage standardized for 100 leaves (percent of leaves with damage)  
245 and also recorded the percent of leaf area removed by beetles for all of  
246 the leaves on each branch. Percent leaf area removed was estimated  
247 by photographing each leaf and using the LeafByte application

(Getman-Pickering, Campbell, Aflitto, Ugine, & Davis 2019). We compared levels of damage estimated as % leaves with damage, the measure used here, and as % leaf area removed using JMP 14.2 (Fit y by x).

We found that the percentage of leaves that had damage by beetles was a good predictor of the leaf area removed (Fig. 1,  $R^2 = 0.51$ ,  $n = 20$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ). Since beetles eat only a small fraction of each leaf, the percentage of leaf area removed was approximately an order of magnitude less than the percentage of leaves that were damaged (the slope of the relationship in Fig. 1 was  $0.087 \pm 0.020$  s.e.).

### 3 RESULTS

#### *3.1 Movement*

Beetles were more likely to move from those leaves that had been clipped compared to unclipped control leaves within one hour following clipping (Fig. 2, Fisher's exact test  $P = 0.002$ ). After 24 hours, those beetles that had been on clipped leaves were more likely to have departed the branch compared to beetles on unclipped controls (Fig. 3, Fisher's exact test  $P = 0.02$ ). Beetles that moved under these circumstances were most often not in the vicinity and had traveled some unknown distance. Since it was not feasible to mark the

270 beetles themselves without affecting their behavior, we were unable to  
271 determine how far they had moved.

272       The results were similar when nearby leaves were clipped but  
273 the leaf that the beetles were first on was not disturbed in either  
274 treatment. In this case, beetles were more likely to depart leaves  
275 whose neighbors had been experimentally clipped compared to those  
276 with unclipped neighboring leaves after one hour (Fig. 4, Fisher's exact  
277 test  $P = 0.02$ ).

278       There was no difference in the likelihood that beetles placed on  
279 damaged leaves would move compared to beetles placed on  
280 undamaged leaves. For both of these treatments, 21 of 30 beetles  
281 moved off the leaf they had been placed on within the first hour  
282 (Fisher's exact test  $P = 1.00$ ). Placing the beetles on experimental  
283 leaves appeared to agitate them and they moved almost immediately  
284 in most cases.

### 285       3.2 Dispersion of damage

286       The ten bushes that we selected to examine patterns of  
287 dispersion of damage ranged from having 4 to 65 percent of their  
288 leaves with damage during the early sampling event in July (Fig. 5A,  
289 mean 25 % of leaves had chewing damage). As the season  
290 progressed, more leaves received damage (the mean proportion of  
291 damaged leaves increased from 25% to 34%, Wilcoxon signed-ranks  
292 test,  $P = 0.01$ ). Over this time period, the variance in the proportion of

leaves with damage decreased by 52% (Fig. 5B, Wilcoxon signed-ranks test,  $P = 0.019$ ). Variance in the proportion of leaves decreased for 8 of 10 bushes even as the mean level of damage increased (Fig. 5C). The pattern of damage became less aggregated (more even) across the branches on individual plants.

#### 4 DISCUSSION

We have learned a lot about the mechanisms of induced resistance and about their effects on the survival and performance of herbivores. However, we still know relatively little about how they affect the population dynamics of herbivores, particularly their spatial dynamics (Karban 2011, Rubin, Ellner, Kessler, & Morrell 2015). This is somewhat surprising since early reports of induced resistance against herbivory were motivated by observations of striking spatial patterns of damage (e.g., Carroll and Hoffman 1980, Edwards and Wratten 1983). Edwards and Wratten argued that herbivores would move away from damaged tissue and that this induced movement would create an even distribution of plant damage. For these early model systems, it is still not known whether either the plants or herbivores use volatile information to induce plant resistance or for informed herbivore movement.

Two theoretical models have considered the spatial distributions of damage that are predicted by induced plant responses. Underwood, Anderson, & Inouye (2005) modeled herbivore movement caused by



316 induction and found that herbivores tended to move away from  
317 damage and to aggregate at tissues of higher quality. Either  
318 aggregated or even distributions could result depending upon the time  
319 lags between initial damage, plant responses, and subsequent  
320 movement. A more recent model that included both informed  
321 herbivore movement and communication between plant tissues that  
322 affected induction found that time lags and the magnitude of informed  
323 herbivore movement and plant communication all influenced the  
324 distribution of damage (Rubin, Ellner, Kessler, & Morrell 2015). These  
325 models both predicted that aggregated, random, or even distributions  
326 can be expected. Informed herbivore movement led to aggregated  
327 damage but the combination of informed movement plus plant  
328 communication spread damage more evenly (Rubin, Ellner, Kessler, &  
329 Morrell 2015).

330       The current study is the first empirical test of predictions of  
331 Rubin et al.'s model in a system in which both herbivores and plants  
332 are known to use volatile information emitted by nearby plant tissues.  
333 *T. pilosa* larvae in the field were found to move away from leaves that  
334 were experimentally damaged (Figs. 2, 3) or were exposed to volatiles  
335 from experimentally damaged leaves (Fig. 4). They were more likely to  
336 choose to feed on leaves that were neither damaged nor exposed to  
337 volatiles from damaged neighbors in lab trials (Grof-Tisza et al. 2020).  
338 Sagebrush also perceives cues emitted by damage and becomes more

resistant to herbivores when it is exposed to volatiles from experimentally damaged tissue of the same or neighboring individuals (Karban, Shiojiri, Huntzinger, & McCall 2006).

As the season progressed, beetle larvae damaged a greater percentage of leaves (Fig 5A). We found that the non-destructive estimates of the proportion of leaves that were damaged by herbivores and destructive measures of leaf area removed were reasonably well correlated (Fig. 1). Not only did the mean level of damage increase over the season (Fig. 5A), but the variance in damage among branches on individual bushes decreased (Fig. 5B, C). The distribution of damage became more even as the season progressed and damage accumulated. This result was robust to our analytical methods; analyzing mean residuals for branches during early and late samples gave similar results as those we presented (see Supporting Information).

Many induced plant responses have been found to be localized, strongest for the semi-autonomous tissues near to the site of damage (Tuomi, Fagerstrom, & Niemela 1991, de Kroon, Huber, Stuefer & van Groenendael 2005, Zanne, Sweeney, Sharma & Orians 2006). In keeping with this generalization, induced responses of sagebrush to herbivory remain localized and information does not transfer readily among branches through the plant's vascular system (Cook and Stoddart 1960, Karban, Shiojiri, Huntzinger, & McCall 2006). Localized

362 plant responses increase the spatial variation among leaves and  
363 branches, i.e., increase within-plant patchiness in traits that affect  
364 herbivores. Many plants have recently been found to perceive and  
365 respond to volatile cues emitted by damage to neighboring plant  
366 tissues (Karban 2015). The effectiveness of volatile plant-plant  
367 communication dissipates over relatively short distances (Heil and  
368 Adame-Alvarez 2010, Karban 2015). Plant responses to localized  
369 volatile cues also tend to increase the patchiness of defensive and  
370 nutritive traits that affect herbivores.

371       Sharing information among plant tissues can have the opposite  
372 influence of evening out the variation in plant quality. For plants that  
373 perceive volatile cues, any particular plant tissue does not need to be  
374 damaged itself prior to responding to elevated risk. In this way,  
375 volatile communication has the potential to reduce variation in plant  
376 quality among tissues within an individual. Rubin et al. (2015) noted  
377 that those empirical studies that found that induced resistance made  
378 the distribution of damage more even (Edwards and Wratten 1983,  
379 Bergelson, Fowler, & Hartley 1986, Silkstone 1987) all described  
380 systems in which the number of leaves greatly outnumbered the  
381 number of herbivores. In these cases, the herbivores could move away  
382 from previously damaged leaves and seek out undamaged ones. This  
383 was also the case for *T. pilosa* and sagebrush in this study with the  
384 possible exception of two of the ten bushes that experienced

385 approximately 90% of all leaves with beetle damage by the end of the  
386 season. For these bushes, beetle larvae fed on most leaves within an  
387 individual plant canopy but they consumed relatively little leaf area on  
388 any given leaf (Fig. 1).

389         In conclusion, informed movement by *T. pilosa* larvae away from  
390 damaged sagebrush leaves over the course of their development had  
391 the effect of evening the distribution of damage among branches  
392 within individual bushes. The distribution of damage is not well  
393 studied but existing evidence suggests that it can be at least as  
394 important as the total amount of damage. Herbivores that dispersed  
395 their damage had less adverse effects on plant fitness compared to  
396 those with the same amount of more aggregated damage (Marquis  
397 1992, Mauricio, Bowers, & Bazzaz 1993, Meyer 1998). Since sagebrush  
398 is a long-lived perennial, it was not feasible to assess the effects of  
399 different spatial patterns of damage on plant fitness in this system.  
400 Patterns of dispersion of damage can also affect key population  
401 properties such as dynamics and stability (Hassell and May 1973, Ives  
402 1991, Cronin 2003); these patterns deserve more consideration in  
403 plant-herbivore studies involving systems that are more amenable to  
404 addressing plant performance. Distributions of damage that are even  
405 rather than aggregated are counter-intuitive; this system provides an  
406 example of induced plant responses to volatile cues coupled with

407 informed herbivore movement that shift the distribution of damage  
408 towards increased evenness.

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#### 417 Authors' Contributions

418 RK designed the study and collected the data. RK and LHY  
419 analyzed the data and wrote the paper.

420 Data are available in Dryad <https://doi.org/10.25338/B8162M>

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536            206.

537

## Figure Captions

Fig 1. The relationship between the percentage of leaves damaged by beetles and the percent area removed for 20 branches. ( $R^2 = 0.51$ ,  $n = 20$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ).

Fig 2. The number of beetle larvae that moved away from leaves that had been experimentally damaged (clip) versus unclipped controls after one hour.

Fig 3. The number of beetle larvae that we were able to locate (stayed) on branches that had been experimentally damaged (clip) versus unclipped controls after 24 hours.

Fig 4. The number of beetle larvae that moved away from leaves that had been exposed to volatiles from experimentally clipped neighboring leaves versus unclipped controls after one hour.

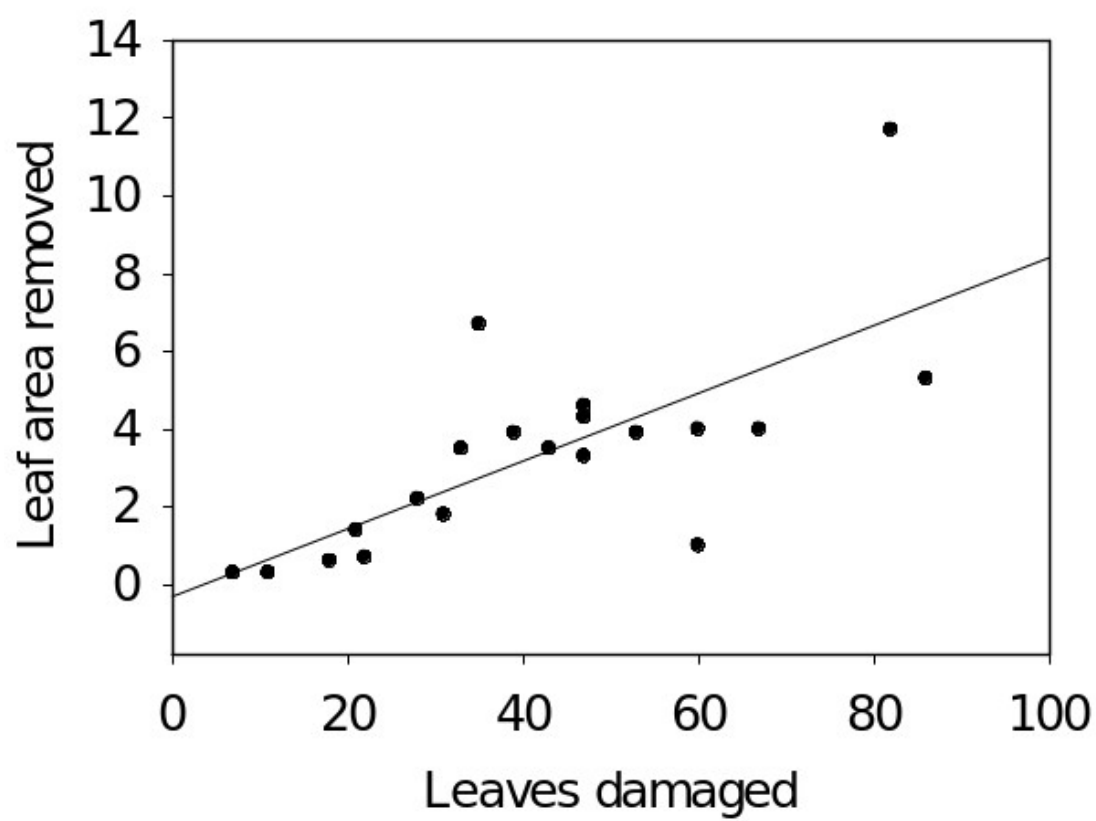
Fig 5. The proportion of leaves on branches that have been damaged by beetle feeding on ten sagebrush bushes soon after beetle larvae began feeding (July - early season) and after beetle larvae had completed feeding (August - late season). A. Mean proportion of damaged leaves  $\pm 1$  s.e. B. Variance in the proportion of damaged leaves  $\pm 1$  s.e. C. Change in the variance in the proportion of damaged leaves for each of the ten bushes

558 over the season. The darker line indicates two bushes with  
559 similar values.

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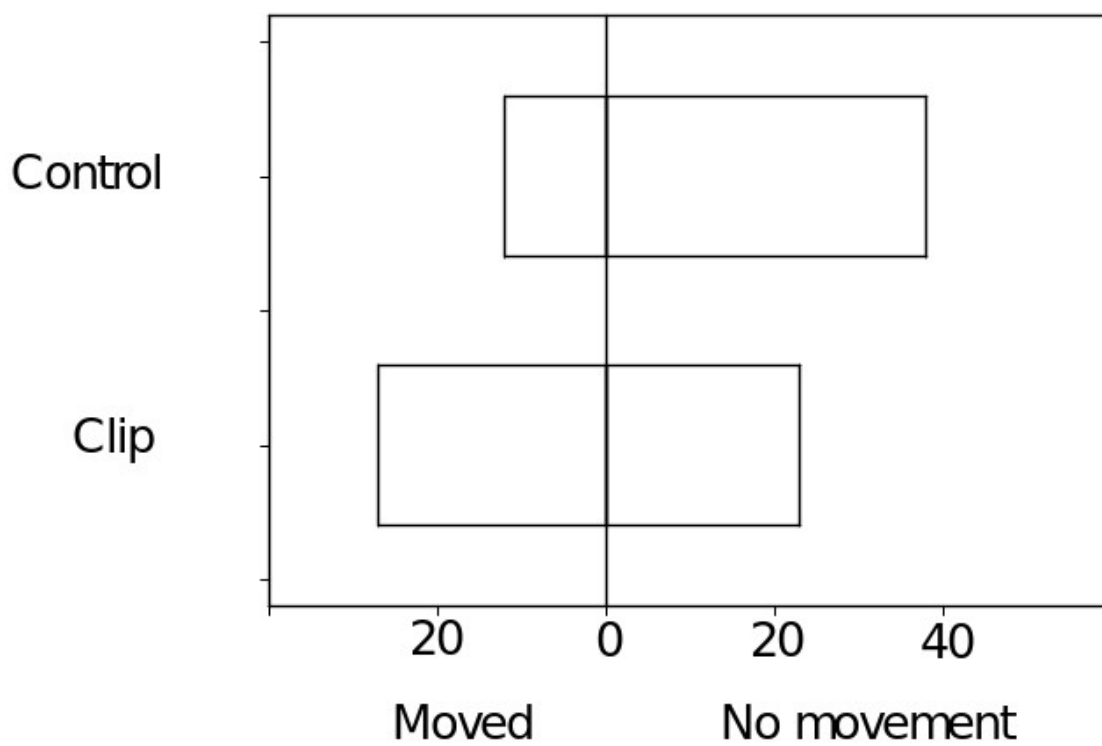
562 Fig. 1  
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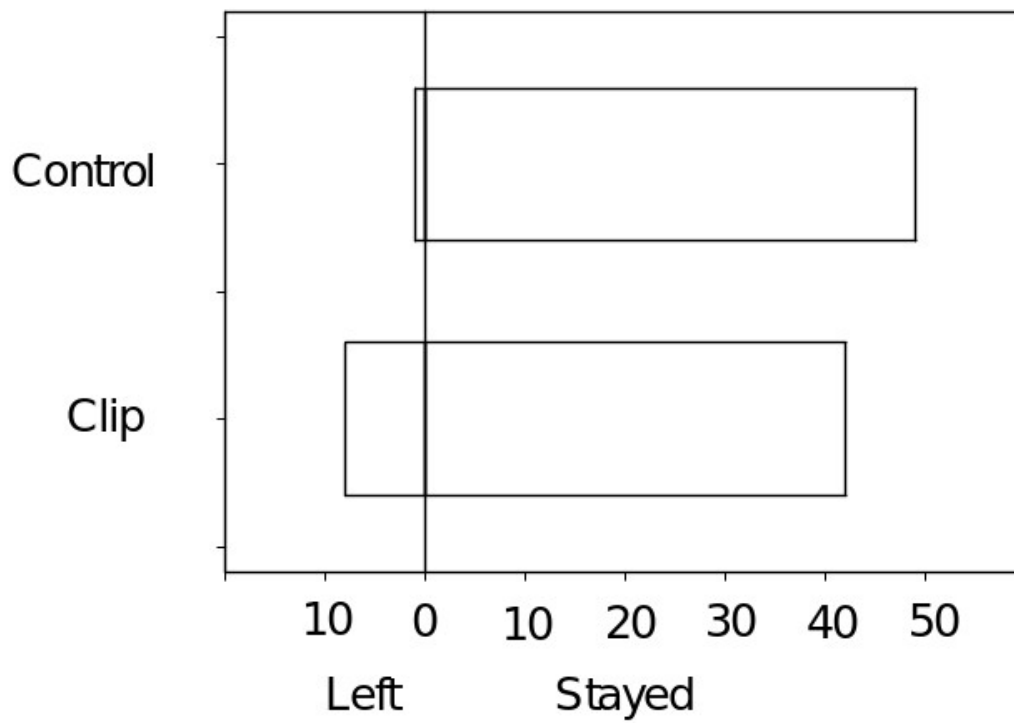
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566 Fig 2



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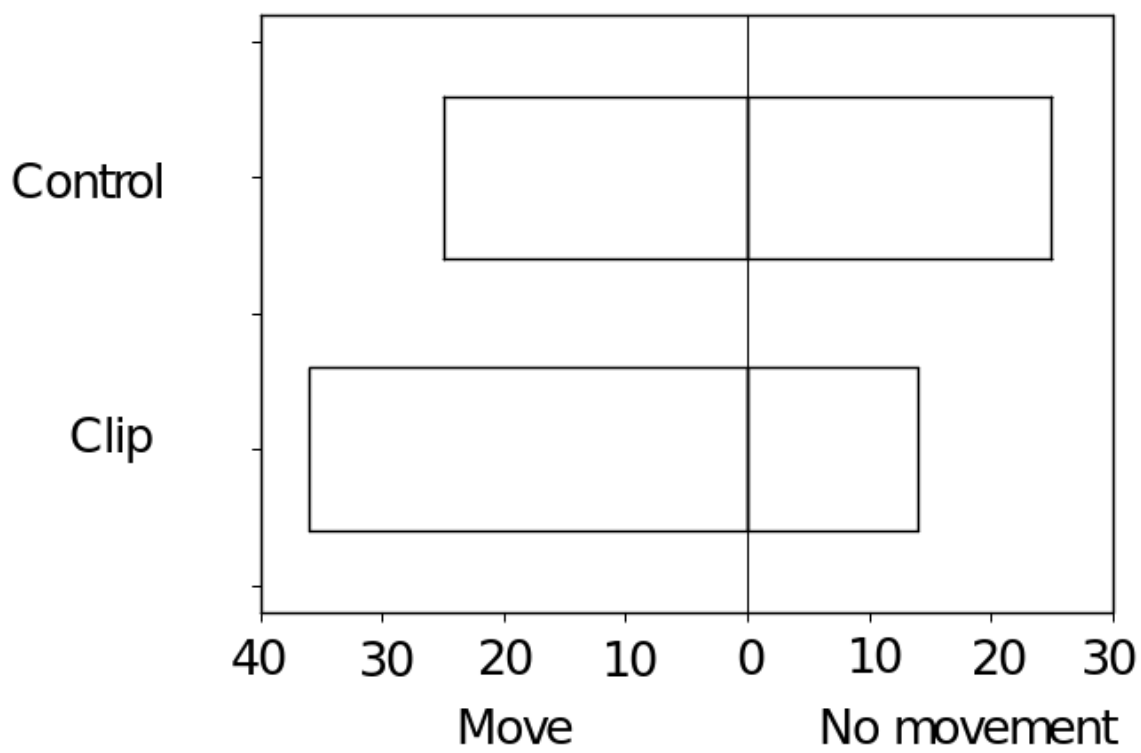
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570 Fig 3

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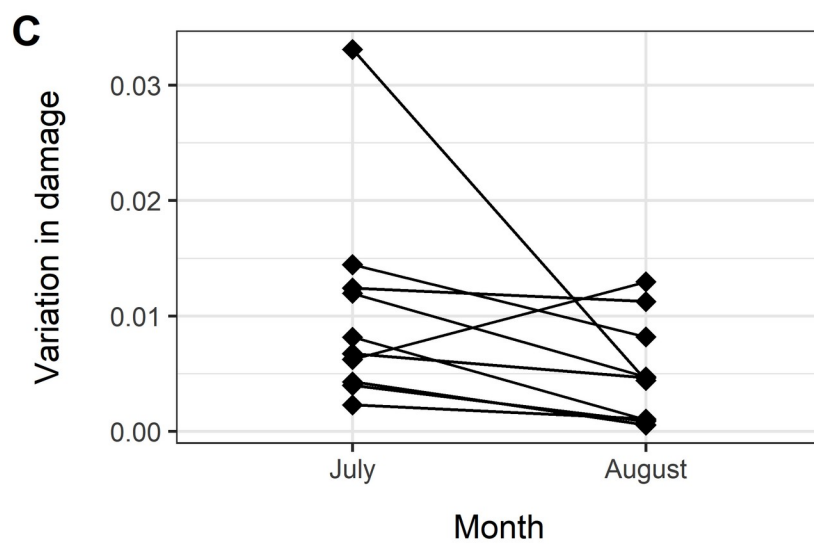
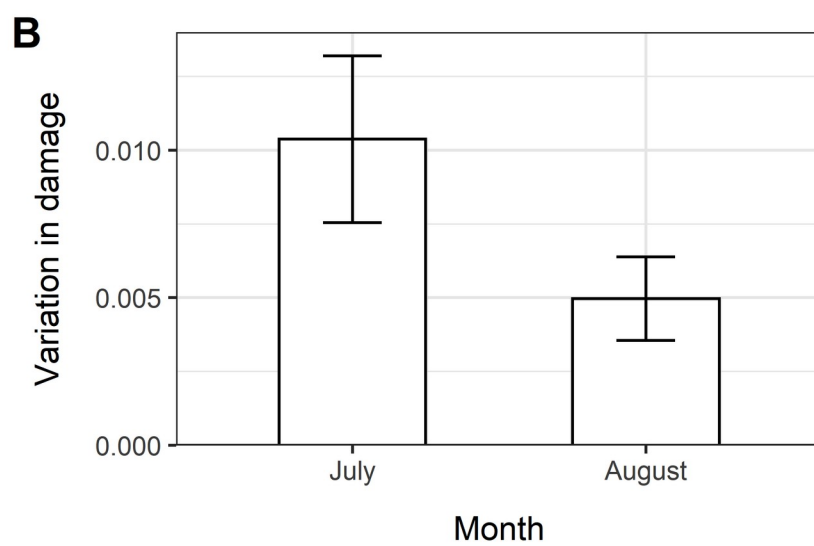
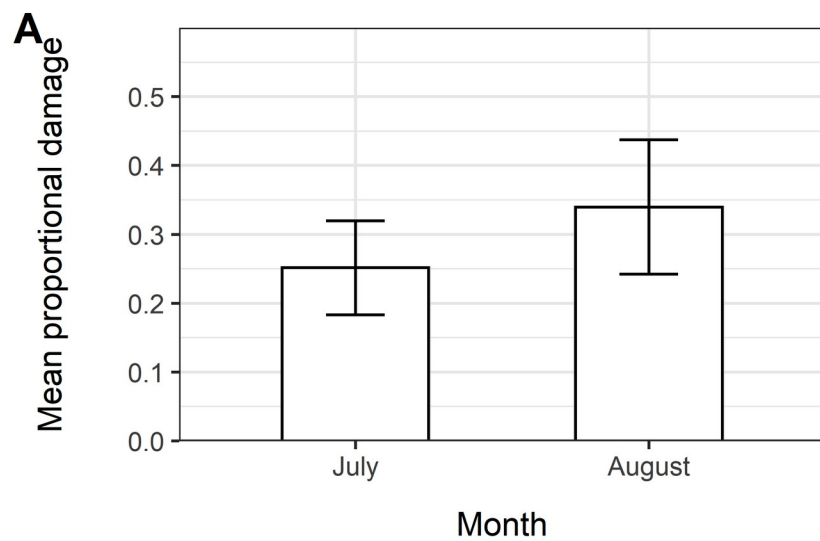


572 Fig 4



573

574 Fig 5



## 576 Supporting Information

### 577 *Dispersion of damage*

578         In our paper, we reported that the variation in the proportion of  
579 leaves on branches that were damaged by beetles was greater early  
580 compared to late in the season (Fig 5B, C). We obtained similar results  
581 when we considered the mean absolute residuals (i.e., mean residual  
582 deviance) from a linear model with proportional damage as the  
583 dependent variable, month as a fixed factor, and bush as a random  
584 factor to account for the repeated measures design. While variance is  
585 based on the sum of squared deviations, this analysis of residuals uses  
586 absolute values and is less sensitive to large deviations. Both analyses  
587 yielded qualitatively similar results. Mean absolute residuals decreased  
588 by 11.7% between July and August (one-tailed Wilcoxon ranked sum  
589 test,  $P = 0.04$ ). This test is analogous to a non-parametric, repeated  
590 measures Levene test for equality of variances.

591         A non-parametric approach was required because the  
592 proportional damage data in this study did not meet the assumption of  
593 binomial, Poisson or other parametric analyses. While logit  
594 transformations are often recommended to allow for the parametric  
595 analysis of proportional data (e.g., Warton, D. I., and F. K. Hui. 2011.  
596 The arcsine is asinine: the analysis of proportions in ecology. Ecology  
597 92:3-10), this dataset included zero values and this made it unreliably

598 sensitive to the size of the arbitrary non-zero constant required to  
599 transform these data.